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MAP INTELLIGENCE REVIEW

*Reclassified
for MR-38
m. 50.*

13 12 05 16



CIA/RR MR-38

October 1953

DOCUMENT NO. 8
NO CHANGE IN CLASS. ☐
☒ DECLASSIFIED
CLASS. CHANGED TO: TS S C
NEXT REVIEW DATE: _____
AUTH: HR 70-2
DATE 6 Sept 79 REVIEWER: Q06514

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* The individual classification for each article in this Review is given at the end of the article.

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THE CREATION OF ANDHRA AND ITS IMPLICATION FOR INDIA

I. Introduction

On 1 October 1953, Andhra, the home of the Telugu-speaking population of India, became the first state in India to be created along linguistic lines. Pressure for the establishment of Andhra was commonly attributed to the Communists, but within Andhra it was shared by all major parties, including the Congress Party. The decision to form the new state was made in December 1952, following the martyr-death by fasting of a pro-Andhra advocate who was a member of the Congress Party.

The Communists, however, were the only major party ready to exploit fully the issue of a linguistic state. Their campaign began well before the general elections of 1951, in which the Communist Party gained control of one-third of the seats from the Telugu-speaking area in the Madras Legislature. The issue of a separate linguistic state for Andhra had simmered for 30 years prior to the elections. Before that, Andhran nationalism had been practically dormant for centuries. The Andhrans, or Telugu-speaking people as they are now called, declined in power in the Deccan during the second century, and the nation itself disappeared in the third century A.D.

Well over 20 million people in India speak Telugu, the great majority living in 12 districts formerly included in Madras and in 8 districts in neighboring Hyderābād State. A small number also live in Burma, having emigrated there from the northern coastal districts of Madras. The new state is being carved out of Madras, and will include the 11 northeastern districts of that state -- Srikākulam, Visākhāpatnam, East and West Gōdavari, Kistna, Guntūr, Nellore, Kurnool, Cuddapah, Chittoor, and Anantapur -- and three taluks of the district of Bellary.* Agitation has also begun for the establishment of a "Greater Andhra," which would include the 8 districts from the state of Hyderābād in which Telugu is a common language. All in all, about 20 percent of the Telugu-speaking people live outside the limits of Andhra as shown on the accompanying map (CIA 12293, October 1953).

II. The Scope of the Problems Raised by Andhra

A. Proponents' Hopes

Proponents of Andhra State emphasize the local advantages and tend to ignore the ultimate effects of linguistic division on a nation like India that has many languages. They cite the fact that there are more than 20 million Telugu-speaking people in

*Alur, Adoni, and Rayadrug taluks.

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India, the hope that democratic proceedings could be attained by using the vernacular Telugu instead of English, and the faith that the alleged discrimination against the Andhrans would be eliminated if they were separated from the Tamil-speaking population of the parent Madras State. Of all the political parties in the Andhra area, the Communists hope to gain most -- the creation of a state that they might eventually control.

B. Opponents' Fears

The Indian Government opposes any division along linguistic lines, but this feeling is not shared by all members of the dominant Congress Party. Nehru himself has seemed to vacillate on the issue. The Government fears that the establishment of one linguistic state may set a precedent for the creation of other states along similar lines. The Kanarese, Malayam, Tamils, Gujarati, Marathi, and Punjabi might demand states of their own, thus completely changing the political map of India.

The delimitation of such states would be difficult. It would be impossible to draw boundaries corresponding exactly with linguistic divisions, since language boundaries are not sharp and many minority speech enclaves are completely surrounded by larger areas in which other languages predominate. Creation of linguistic states

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would in some cases cause a fragmentation of administrative areas, whereas the consolidation of existing units would in many areas be in the interests of greater cohesion and efficiency. This would be the case in the frontier state of Punjab, where there has been recent agitation for a linguistic state, following the example of Andhra. This frontier area is thought by many to need a stronger and larger administrative area, a Greater Punjab consisting of the Punjab, Pepsu (Patiala and East Punjab States Union), and Himachal Pradesh. The division of multilingual ports, such as Madras and Bombay, on a linguistic basis might prove even more difficult. In addition to creating new states, boundaries between old states might also require revision -- for example, the Bihar-East Bengal boundary.

Linguistic state governments might have a strong tendency to promote their language to the exclusion of any minority languages, thereby automatically depriving the minorities of even a limited chance for advancement in business or government service. Ultimately, neighboring states set up on a linguistic basis might pull apart from one another, each emphasizing its own linguistic brand of nationalism. An example of how this works even in its infant stage occurred in the State Assembly of Hyderābād when linguistic division was discussed. Nominally, the speech of the assembly is

Hindustani and English. During the debate, however, discussions were primarily in the regional Telugu, Kanarese, and Marathi languages.

Fear has also been expressed that the effort of setting up linguistic states would slow down the Five Year Plan of the National Government in many areas. In reply, however, the Committee of the All-India Linguistic States Conference asserted that the success of the Plan required redistribution of states on a linguistic basis.

Possibly the greatest fear concerns the ability of the state of Andhra to be self-sustaining. The new state includes most of the famine districts of old Madras State; its resources are meager, and its population is dense and poor.

III. Problems Associated with the Creation of Andhra

A. The Land and the People

The ability of the land to support a dense and increasing population will be the most serious problem facing the new state of Andhra after its creation, regardless of which political party dominates the state. According to the 1951 Census of India, Andhra has a population of 20,037,988, over 81 percent of which is rural and directly dependent upon the land for its existence. The current distribution of population corresponds roughly with the geographic

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regions of the state -- the coastal region having a denser population than the interior plateau.

The coastal region includes the seven districts bordering the Bay of Bengal. It consists of a coastal plain that increases in elevation to the west, where it becomes hilly and merges into the Eastern Ghats that border the Deccan Plateau of the interior. The two northern coastal districts -- Srīkākulam and Visākhāpatnam -- are largely hilly. Immediately to the south are the four delta districts -- East and West Godāvari in the delta of the Godāvari River, and Kistna and Guntūr in that of the Kistna River. These four districts include some hilly country, but most of the land is a relatively flat and fertile area with rice cultivation interspersed with villages and gardens. The southernmost district, Nellore, is largely low, flat, and barren, with only a few small, poor villages. In the east, however, there are some fairly fertile irrigated areas, and in the west are a few patches of productive black soil.

The interior plateau is an eastward-sloping tableland that includes the districts of Kurnool, Cuddapah, Chittoor, Anantapur, and Bellary. To the west are the Western Ghats, which rise to elevations of 5,000 feet. The Eastern Ghats form the eastern boundary. The region between is almost uniformly poor farm country,

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with large expanses of wasteland. Chitoor, the southernmost of the interior districts, however, is transitional in character between coastal plain and interior plateau.

Practically all of Andhra is deficient in rainfall, but in general the amount received annually decreases from east to west. Most of the rain falls during the southwest or summer monsoon, but along the coast of the Bay of Bengal some rain generally accompanies the northeast monsoon, which begins in October. Reliance cannot be placed on either monsoon. The date of onset may be delayed, the monsoon may end too early for successful crop production, or it may fail completely -- sometimes for several years in succession.

The coastal region has a higher annual rainfall than the interior plateau, averaging about 36 inches but varying considerably from place to place. The southwestern monsoon brings more rain to the western part of the coastal region, where the land is somewhat higher; the northeastern monsoon, on the other hand, brings more rain to the land near the coast, especially in the south. If the northeast monsoon is favorable, it may reduce somewhat the famine hazard after the failure of the southwest monsoon. Most of the crops, however, are raised during a 65-day period in June, July, and August, the period of heaviest rainfall from the southwest monsoon.

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Although the total rainfall is low in view of the high temperatures, which range from an average winter minimum of 64°-79°F to an average summer maximum between 86° and 99°F, the coastal region is less subject to famine than the interior plateau because of the availability of irrigation water.

All of the interior plateau is subject to irregularly recurrent droughts. The region, lying in the rain shadow of the higher Western Ghats, receives less rainfall than the coastal region from the southwest monsoon and, because of its inland location, receives practically no rain from the northeast monsoon. The average annual precipitation varies from 30 inches to 20 inches (in the extreme west). Although droughts are most frequent in the extreme west, the entire inland plateau comprised the famine area of old Madras State. Although the Godavāri and Kistna Rivers rise in the rainier Western Ghats and cross the plateau, they flow through deeply incised valleys and their waters are not available for irrigation. Only the small patches of water-retaining "black soil" are good farmland. The extensive red soils are more subject to drought, and a year of crop production is generally followed by two years of fallow. Temperatures are more extreme than in the coastal plain, rising in summer to 110°F or even higher.

The coastal region has a considerably denser population than the interior plateau, with the greatest density in the four delta districts and the lowest in Nellore District. In general the greatest increase in population is also occurring in the four agriculturally productive delta districts, which form the stronghold of Communism in Andhra. The mean decennial growth rate for the period 1941-1951 was 15 percent for East Godāvari, 14.7 percent for West Godāvari, 20.4 percent for Kistna, and 11.3 percent for Guntūr. Over the 50-year period ending in 1941, these districts together had a 73 percent increase. During the 80 years from 1861 to 1941 the increase amounted to 275 percent. The current census indicates that the high rate of increase is still continuing.

Before the opening of the first modern irrigation systems during the period 1850-55, the Godāvari-Kistna Delta was a famine area; today it is a food exporter. As the food supply was increased and regularized by irrigation, the population, land values, and total wealth rose but the per capita wealth did not increase proportionally. The rise in land values incident upon irrigation benefited only the small landowning class. A large part of the population is made up of landless laborers who are employed only 4 to 6 months of the year and live at a bare subsistence level. Not only are these people

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unable to improve their lot by the purchase of land and houses, but they are also socially ostracized and must live in special segregated quarters. The British Government, Christian missionaries, and the Congress Party Government have attempted to relieve the lot of the landless but without marked success. In their discontent, these laborers have turned towards the Communists.

The people of the interior plateau are even poorer than those of the delta districts and are as strongly nationalistic. Nevertheless, the Communists have met with less success on the plateau -- possibly because the people know little about a better way of life, because they are less politically conscious, or because Communist efforts were less concentrated there. On the plateau, there is little irrigation or possibility of irrigation that might reduce the danger of crop failure, and famines recur frequently. Despite the history of famine, the poor soil, the gamble on the timely arrival and conclusion of the southwest monsoon, and the general aridity of the region, the population of the plateau is increasing, although in most places at a lower rate than on the delta. Whereas the population of the delta districts increased 73 percent between 1891 and 1941, that of the plateau increased only 28 percent. During the next 10 years the increase amounted to 6.5 percent for Kurnool,

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9.5 percent for Cuddapah, and 15.5 percent for Anantapur. The abnormally large increase for Anantapur cannot be explained on the basis of any increase of wealth or opportunity; apparently the people ignore the history of famines. Anantapur is the district of Andhra most subject to famine.

In both the coastal region and the interior plateau of Andhra, the pressure of population on the land is heavy and is increasing. The result has been the widespread poverty and discontent that breed Communism. Any improvement in this situation must involve both the people and the land, but it will vary from place to place in relation to the climate, terrain, and availability of water for irrigation. The experience of the coastal plain indicates that increased agricultural production and total wealth do not necessarily increase the per capita wealth or raise the standard of living of the masses of the people. Nevertheless, increased food production through the use of improved agricultural practices adapted to local conditions is essential to ward off famine.

B. The Selection of the Capital

When the Andhra problem began to boil in 1952, it was assumed that the question of the location of the new capital would be the biggest stumbling block to agreement on the setting up of the new

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state. The announcement of December 1952 creating the state expressly excluded Madras City from Andhra. A month later, however, that city was still considered as a possible temporary capital of Andhra. It was then and still is the capital of Madras State. In April 1953, the Government of India rejected the proposal that Madras be made the capital of Andhra for a 3- to 5-year period on grounds that establishment of the permanent capital at the time the state was created would "facilitate full integration and progress." There was a widespread demand for rejection of the Government's counter-concession, which allowed Andhra State to be administered from Madras City until transfer arrangements could be completed and allowed the Madras High Court to continue to function as the joint High Court for both states until a decision had been taken by the Andhra Legislature regarding a permanent capital. In April 1953, Tamil leaders voiced the fear that clear-cut separation of Madras City from Andhra would result in progressive decline in the importance of the city.

At present Kurnool is serving as the interim capital of Andhra, having gained this status at a meeting on 5 June 1953. The choice of a capital lay between Kurnool Town in Kurnool District and Vijayavādā in Kistna District, the latter being demanded by the

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Communists, who are reported to have control over the peasants in approximately 50 villages around Vijayavādā. In Kistna District, of which Vijayavādā is the administrative headquarters, the Communists captured 10 out of 12 assembly seats in the general election. In sharp contrast, the Communists do not have much influence in Kurnool District, having captured but 1 out 8 assembly seats. Recently, however, disgruntled members of the Congress and Praja Socialist Parties have indicated they would favor Waltair in Visākhāpatnam District in the event the choice of a capital were reconsidered. In Visākhāpatnam District the Communist Party received only 2 out of 14 assembly seats, the Congress Party none, the Krishikar Lok Party 5, and the Socialist Party 4. In any case, the choice of Vijayavādā seems unlikely.

Kurnool was obviously chosen to avoid selecting a Communist stronghold as capital. A local humorist (or realist) summed up the selection when he said:

Kurnool
Is not particularly cool,
But it enjoys the advantage, it is said,
Of not being particularly red.

The selection of Kurnool came about as a result of an understanding among the Congress, Praja Socialist, and Krishikar Lok

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Parties. Not all members of the former two parties, however, were in favor of Kurnool. Apparently a little persuasion in the form of threats of party disciplinary action was required to get dissidents into line. On a secret ballot, Kurnool Town might well have been rejected as the capital.

The leaders of the Congress and Praja Socialist Parties were able to muster the following additional arguments for Kurnool Town as capital:

(1) The people of the 5 districts on the interior plateau, known collectively as Rayalaseema, are anxious to have the capital located within their area in accordance with the Sri Bagh Pact.*

(2) Kurnool, located only 150 miles from the city of Hyderābād and only 1 mile from the Hyderābād State border, might serve as a stepping stone to attaining a "Greater Andhra," which would include Telugu districts from Hyderābād, Mysore, and the residual part of Madras State.

(3) The location of the capital in Rayalaseema would help

*The districts included in Rayalaseema are Bellary, Anantapur, Cuddapah, Kurnool, and Chittoor. According to the Sri Bagh Pact of November 1937, the Congress Party, to gain the support of the Rayalaseemite leaders, gave them the right to establish either the Capital or High Court of Andhra within Rayalaseema.

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the future administration to concentrate on development projects in an essentially backward area.

(4) Vacant land, totaling 4,000 to 5,000 acres, is available around Kurnool Town as a capital site.

(5) The water supply of Kurnool is better than that of other cities of Andhra.

The selection of Kurnool was actually a politically expedient choice. It is uncomfortably hot, having a mean maximum temperature of 112°F for the three hottest months. During this period the people suffer acutely from a shortage of drinking water, the water system having been designed for a population of 26,000 instead of the 60,000 population of today. Living costs are abnormally high, higher than in Madras City, and the city has a housing shortage. It is also subject to inundation when the Tungabhadra and Handri Rivers are simultaneously in flood -- as in 1851, 1916, 1949, and 1952.

C. The Bellary District Issue

Bellary Taluk in Bellary District is a good example of what can happen when Andhra people are left outside the linguistic state. Bellary District was partitioned, leaving only 3 out of 10 taluks to Andhra. The disposition of a fourth taluk, Bellary, was disputed

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between the Kannadigas (Kanarese-speaking peoples) and the Andhrans. An inquiry conducted by the Government of India recommended that Bellary Taluk be awarded to Mysore State. In mid-June, mob violence and looting broke out, and Kannadigas were assaulted. A week later, violence shifted to the communication network; a train was delayed and telegraph and telephone wires were cut. Finally, a resolution urging a plebiscite was adopted by the agitators. Ironically, the Andhrans in Bellary Taluk who demanded inclusion within Andhra are outnumbered two to one by the Kanarese-speaking group and are barely equal in number to all the other linguistic groups together.

A problem also arises regarding the disposal of the part of Bellary District not included in Andhra. This residue is cut off from the truncated Madras State by the main body of Andhra but is adjacent to Mysore. Indications are that residual Bellary District became part of Mysore on 1 October 1953.

D. The Chittoor District Issue

Chittoor District is a bilingual problem area completely enclosed within the boundary of Andhra. Here the Tamil-speaking people in the 6 southern taluks are protesting against inclusion within Andhra. The Tamil-Nadu North Boundary Protection

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Committee was formed to prevent such inclusion and to agitate for the creation of a Tamil-speaking state. Disturbances in the district followed the usual pattern -- train stopping and telephone-telegraph tampering. (RESTRICTED)

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INDIAN RAILWAY DEVELOPMENTS

The Government of India is steadily furthering the development of the nation's railroad system to meet the economic needs of the people. Progress on some current construction and proposals for future projects in the different railway zones have been described in several recent press reports.

In the Western Railway Zone of India, a traffic survey will be conducted prior to the construction of a meter-gauge (3'3-3/8") rail line extending southward from Rāniwāra to Bhiladi. The proposed line will be 43.6 miles in length and connect the Kandla-Deesa line with Rāniwāra, the present terminus of a meter-gauge line extending northward in western Rājasthān. Completion of this line will reduce materially the rail distance from western and central Rājasthān and the southern Punjab to Kandla, the new Indian port on the peninsula of Kutch.

Business communities in the same zone are also in favor of a new broad-gauge (5'6") link that would join the state of Saurāshtra with the Gujarāt area of northern Bombay State and parts of central India. The question of connecting Saurāshtra with other parts of India by a broad-gauge rail line has been before the Indian Government for more than 6 decades. In the past the conflicting interests

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of the ruling chiefs of Saurāshtra prevented any such construction. This obstacle, however, has been removed by the integration of the princely states, which has taken place since India was granted independence. The current proposal calls specifically for a broad-gauge line between the port city of Bhavnagar on the Gulf of Cambay and the station Tārāpur in the Gujarāt area. At present Saurāshtra is connected with other parts of the country by only two lines of meter gauge, and the most economic utilization of ports in Saurāshtra by the people of the Gujarāt area is therefore not possible. The construction of a new line would radically alter the present railway freight pattern. The rail distance between Bhavnagar and Anand, which is centrally located in the Gujarāt area, would be reduced by 106 miles, and Ahmedābād would be about 168 miles nearer to the port Bhavnagar than to its present outlet, Bombay. Consequently, it would be far more economical for the business community of Gujarāt to shift its export-import trade from Bombay to Bhavnagar. Another alteration in the rail traffic pattern would involve the movement of material between Saurāshtra and north-central India. For example, as a result of poor rail connections from Saurāshtra, salt needed in north-central India is now shipped by sea around India to Calcutta and is then transported west again

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by rail to Allahābād, Kānpur, and even Āgra. The proposed link would eliminate the need for such circuitous routing and permit direct rail shipment to the consuming areas.

In the Northern Railway Zone a line is to be extended from Mānirām on the Gorakhpur-Nautanwā branch line through the forest areas of the Terai that parallel the Nepal border to a point near the border. This line will link the neglected interior of Mahārājgunj Subdivision of Gorakhpur District with the district headquarters and provide better facilities for movement of rice, forest produce, and spices which grow in abundance in the Terai lands.

In the Central Railway Zone, it is expected that work will be started by the end of 1953 on the construction of a broad-gauge line between Indore and Maksi, via Dewās, which will connect with the existing Maksi-Bhopāl broad-gauge line. It has not as yet been decided whether the line should follow a direct route from Dewās to Maksi or a longer route via Ujjain.

In the Eastern Railway Zone the restoration of the Bhāgalpur-Mandār Hill line is in progress and is scheduled for completion by the end of 1953. Work has also been started on the new Madhepura-Murlīganj line in the Northeastern Railway Zone, but it will probably not be completed until the end of 1954.

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Two recent reports note new developments in the Southern Railway Zone. The first concerns the proposed construction of a line between the village of Tellicherry on the west coast of India and the city of Mysore. This rail link would give Mysore direct access to the coastal railroad that extends from Mangalore to Cochin. The second report indicates that the Madura-Usilampatti section of the Madura-Bodināyakkanūr rail link, which was dismantled during World War II and which has been in the process of restoration, is scheduled to be reopened for traffic in September 1953. (UNCLASSIFIED)

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CURRENT SITUATION ALONG THE NORTHERN
BURMA-INDIA BORDER

Border incidents and the growing threat of Communism have focused attention on the largely undemarcated and indefinite northern section of the Burma-India boundary. In March and April 1953, the Prime Ministers of India and Burma met in this area for a series of conferences whose purpose was to dramatize to the primitive Naga tribespeople of this remote frontier area the interest of the Burmese and Indian Governments in their welfare, including the stopping of headhunting and pillaging in some Naga villages. A latent yet potent political force is the Chinese Communist territorial claim to all North Burma, which has undoubtedly influenced Burmese and Indian officials in the formulation of their recent courses of action in the frontier zone. (See accompanying map, CIA 12868.)

The areas inhabited by the Nagas coincide roughly with the undefined and undemarcated sections of the boundary. From approximately 25°33'N-94°55'E to about 26°48'N-95°30'E the boundary has not yet been demarcated, and from 27°11'N-95°57'E to roughly 27°05'N-97°10'E it has not even been defined. Many maps show no line for this latter section. If shown, the boundary commonly is drawn along the watershed between the Chindwin and Brahmaputra Rivers. The

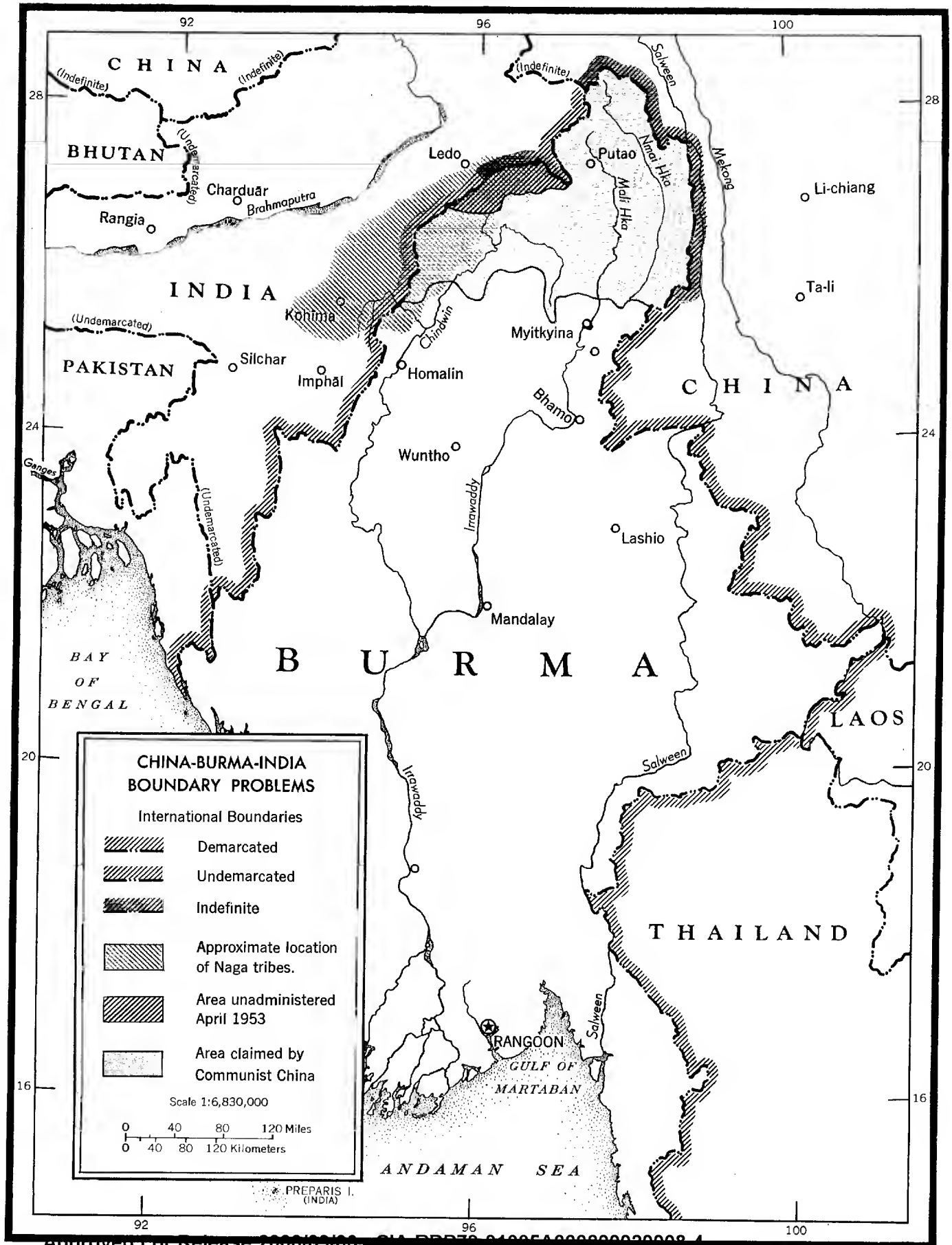
entire course of the boundary runs through heavily forested mountains with elevations ranging from 7,000 to 12,000 feet above sea level.

The Nagas are the most important and numerous of several ethnic groups inhabiting the border area. In Burma, they number about 76,000 and are considered the most primitive Burmese minority group. About 500,000 somewhat more civilized Nagas inhabit the Indian side of the boundary. Because of the remoteness of the border area, the difficult terrain, and the almost complete lack of transportation facilities, many of the Nagas in both India and Burma have remained outside of effective administration. In 1951, only about half of the Burmese Nagas were in administered areas. During a border incident that year, a party of headhunting Burmese Nagas crossed into India and took some 93 "trophies." This raid spurred both governments into action to subdue and administer recalcitrant Naga villages. Military action in early 1953 resulted in the extension of control over most Naga-inhabited areas. Along the undefined section of the boundary, some Naga groups are still not under effective administration. During the 1954 dry season, the Burmese and Indian Governments reportedly are planning to send out a joint expedition to bring under control these last unadministered areas.

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When all of the Naga tribal areas have been brought under administration, negotiations leading to the demarcation and definition of the indefinite section of the Burma-India boundary may be expected. Demarcation of the boundary reportedly is under consideration by the Government of India, but no official announcement regarding future plans has been made.

Several aspects of the current situation could be exploited by the Chinese Communists. For some time, they have been actively indoctrinating minority groups with Communism. Although their efforts have thus far been confined to China, they may attempt to exploit the minority groups in northern Burma, particularly since Communist China claims the area. A small group of Nagas in the Kohima area of India are pressing for an independent "Nagaland." Although the exact relation between this independence movement and the Communists is not clear, the situation could very well be exploited by the Communists. In view of these conditions, consolidation of administrative control, promotion of a program designed to improve the welfare of the Nagas, and demarcation of the frontier would strengthen the positions of the Burmese and Indian Governments against any future subversive political activities by the Chinese Communists. (RESTRICTED)



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ECONOMIC MAP OF FRANCE

France Economique, 1:1,040,000, published by Fernand Nathan, [1951], is a poster-style, highly generalized map that portrays on one sheet the overlapping features of the varied economy of France (CIA Map Library Call No. 81952). Although the map is useful for regional differentiation and is the best map available for purposes of briefing, it has several serious failings and should not be used as a source for specific locations. The most serious fault is the lack of uniformity in the detail presented for various parts of the country. For an industrial area, only the most important components of the economy are indicated, whereas relatively insignificant items are shown for less well developed areas. Similarly, types of information given for some areas are completely omitted for others. For these reasons, the map should be supplemented by other materials that give more details for the various regions shown.

The map distinguishes six incommensurable categories of land-use areas: valuable cultivated land, poor cultivated land, fruit and market-gardening areas, grazing lands, vineyards, and forests. Both major and minor products of each area are named. For the fertile Paris Basin, for example, flax, rape, hops, chicory, cattle, and horses are indicated in addition to the primary crops of wheat

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and sugar beets. A surprisingly large number of specialty crops, such as flowers for the perfume industry in the vicinity of Nice, are also located.

The general location of coal basins, bauxite and iron mines, petroleum deposits and refineries, rock salt deposits, and hydro-electric and thermoelectric powerplants is accurate. Although some mineral deposits are omitted, the map locates a petroleum deposit and refinery near St. Marcet that earlier maps fail to show.

Town and industrial regions are located and defined as to area. Fishing ports and commercial ports are differentiated, and types of imports and exports are listed. (UNCLASSIFIED)

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TWO NEW PROVINCES IN THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

In 1952, the Dominican Republic created two new first-order administrative divisions -- the provincias of Salcedo and Sánchez Ramírez. For purposes of the general elections of 16 May 1952, these territorial reforms became effective as of 8 March 1952; for all other purposes, 16 August 1952 was the effective date. Provincia Salcedo was formed by combining the comunes of Salcedo and Tenares from Provincia Espaillat and the sección of La Jagua from Provincia La Vega. La Jagua was elevated to the status of a distrito municipal, and the town of Salcedo was designated the capital of the Provincia. Provincia Sánchez Ramírez was formed from the común of Cotui and the distrito municipal of Cevicos, both formerly in Provincia Duarte, and the sección of La Pina, of Provincia La Vega. The distrito municipal of Cevicos became a común; the sección of La Pina was raised to the status of a distrito municipal under the new name of Fantino; and Cotui became the capital of the Provincia.

The law creating the two new provincias also elevated various secciones in other parts of the Republic to distritos municipales and various distritos municipales to comunes. Thus, as of 16 August 1952, the Dominican Republic consisted of the Distrito de Santo Domingo, 22

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provincias, 69 comunes, 15 distritos municipales, and approximately
1,600 secciones. (UNCLASSIFIED)

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